

The American Observer

A free, virtuous, and enlightened people must know well the great principles and causes on which their happiness depends.—James Monroe

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Dependent Regions Discussed by UNO

General Agreement on Control of Certain of These Areas, But Not on Others

WILL TRUSTEESHIP PLAN SUCCEED?

International Supervision of Colonies and Pacific Islands Is Subject of Controversy

The UNO General Assembly in London is engaged in a vital and dramatic discussion of what to do about dependent areas of the world. Delegates are arguing over such questions as these: Shall all dependent or backward lands, including colonies and mandates, be placed under the control and supervision of the United Nations Organization? Or shall colonies continue to be governed by individual nations? And what about the Pacific islands? Are they to be under UNO or U. S. authority?

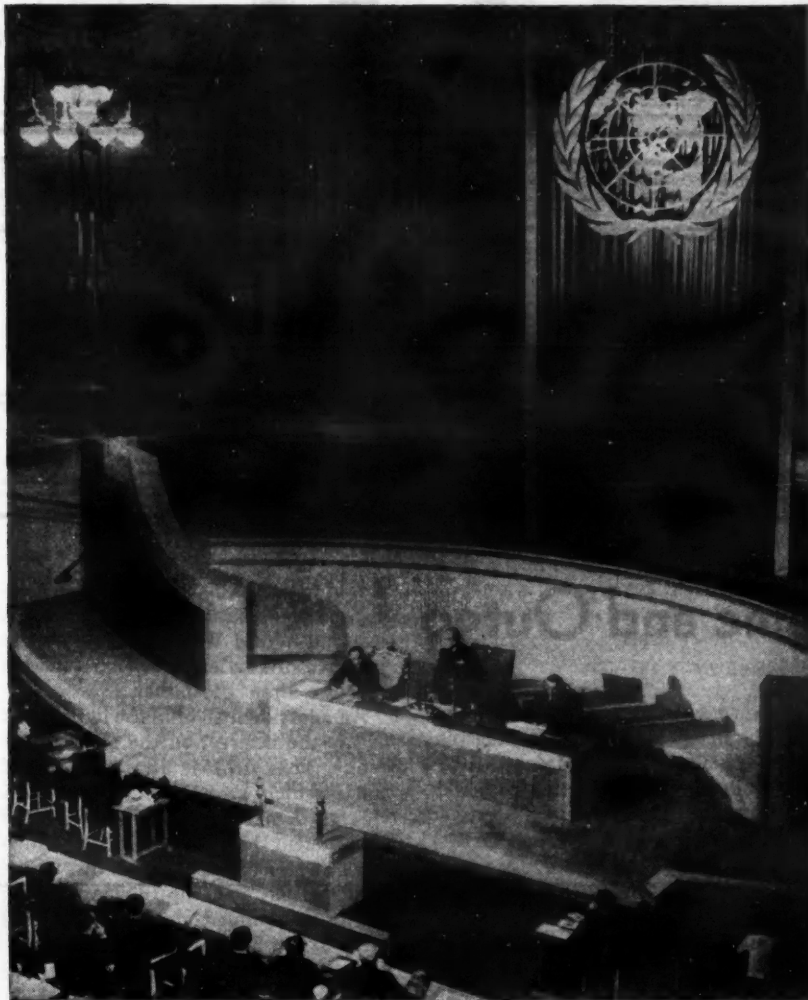
These questions are being hotly debated. The UNO has already worked out a "trusteeship" plan which provides for limited international supervision of dependent areas. American delegates recently dropped a bombshell in the Assembly meeting, however, by urging a great extension of this program. They asked that a number of colonies, such as Indonesia, Malaya, and Indo-China, be brought under UNO authority.

The colonial powers — Britain, France, and the Netherlands — are opposed to any such plan. They criticize the position of the United States, contending that we should not urge UNO supervision of their colonial possessions when we are unwilling to have international control of certain Pacific islands now in our hands.

This same dispute, on a smaller scale, developed after World War I. At that time, the Allies debated what they were going to do with the colonies of defeated Germany and Turkey. Some of the Allies wanted to treat these colonies as "spoils of war," as had always been done before. But President Wilson argued in favor of a plan of international control over enemy colonies. Instead of permitting individual countries to rule these lands for their own advantage, he contended, the nations acting together should supervise the dependent areas and help prepare them for future independence.

Finally, the Allies agreed on a plan which came to be known as the "mandate system." Under this plan, the Turkish and German colonies became known as mandates. Each of these territories was to be governed by one of the Allied nations. The League of Nations, however, was to supervise the way in which each country governed the mandates. It was to establish certain rules and standards, and then see to it that the nations involved lived up to the rules. Each nation in charge

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UNO debates question of trusteeships for dependent areas

INT'L NEWS

Where Do You Stand?

By Walter E. Myer

Do you take a little time now and then to analyze yourself, to inquire how well you are doing in comparison with your friends and classmates? If you observe the members of your class for a while, you will find, I believe, that the students fall into three fairly distinct groups or types. Let me describe the three types, and you may then decide which one most nearly fits you.

The type one student is not interested in his work, and does only what he is required to do. If he can find an excuse to be absent now and then, he is glad of it. When he is present he pays little attention to the class work. He doesn't spend much time on his lessons. He ordinarily does poor work and his grades are low.

The type two student does the reading which is assigned, wants to make good grades and usually does. He recites well, tells what he has read. He does not, however, become so keenly interested in the problems which he studies that he will do further reading about them of his own accord. He is a satisfactory student but not a leader.

The type three student does the required work well, but he does not stop at that. He becomes interested in problems discussed in the class, then feels an urge to find out more about them. He goes to the library and reads books and magazines. He reads widely, looks for different opinions and points of view, makes up his mind about disputed issues and engages in discussion concerning them in school and out. He is recognized not only as a good student but as a leader among his friends and classmates.

In which of these groups do you place yourself? If you are a type one student, how do you account for it? There are many possible explanations, each of which suggests a remedy. It may be that your vocabulary is poor. You may not know the meaning of words that appear in your texts. In that case you should work with a dictionary within reach and look up the words you do not understand.

Perhaps study conditions may not be satisfactory in your home. Try to get off to yourself so that your attention will not be distracted by conversation or the radio. If your eyes bother you, have them examined. Whatever the cause of your poor work may be, track it down and remove it.

If you are in group two, you should be able to rise to the higher level. Your ability is high, or you would not be making good grades. What you need is more imagination and more self-confidence.

Possibly you are in one of the lower groups simply because you don't care. You may think it doesn't make much difference whether or not you do excellent school work. I am sure, however, that the nature of one's school work does have something to do with his chances of success in life. If a person gets into the habit of doing shoddy work when he is young he is very likely to do that kind

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Truman Asks Cut In Huge National Debt

Congress Studies His Proposals for Financing Government During Year Ahead

HE IS OPPOSED TO LOWERING TAXES

States that Americans Have Enough Money to Put the Government on Pay-As-You-Go Basis

In presenting his budget message to Congress two weeks ago, President Truman estimated that the federal government will spend \$36 billion during the coming year, while it will take in \$32 billion. Although the government's expenses will be \$4 billion more than it collects in taxes, the President estimates that for the first time since 1930 there will not be an increase in the total national debt. This is because Mr. Truman proposes to use cash which the Treasury has on hand to meet the \$4 billion difference between income and expenses.

In effect, President Truman says, the nation will have a balanced budget. Such a budget is a goal which many, both inside and outside the government, have long wanted to see.

As a background for our present huge national debt, we may trace briefly what has happened to national expenses and income since the early 1930's. At that time, the depression threw many people out of work and caused the incomes of many others to be cut. This in turn reduced the amount the government collected in taxes. Federal expenses were not reduced as rapidly, and the government had to go in debt.

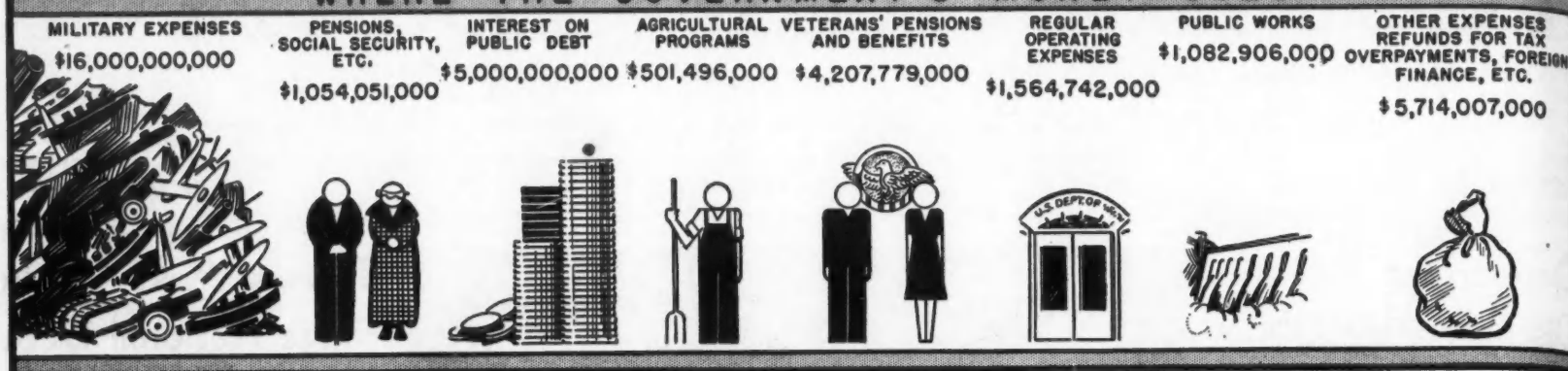
When Mr. Roosevelt became President in 1933, he launched a program of national spending in the effort to bring the nation out of the depression. Relief agencies were organized, subsidies were paid to farmers, loans were made to businesses, public works were established to provide jobs for the unemployed. All these activities took vast sums which were not met by the income from taxes. As a result the budget still could not be balanced.

Since 1939, the rate of federal spending, of course, has been tremendously increased by the war. The building of ships, guns, planes, and other goods needed to fight the enemy had to be done quickly and without regard for cost. Although taxes were greatly increased during this period, they still did not provide nearly as much money as the government was required to spend.

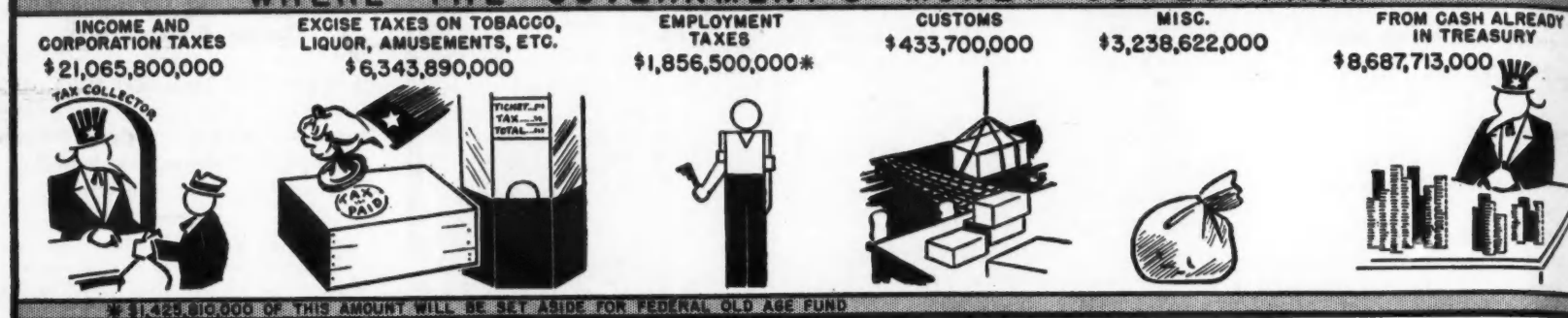
The end of the war, however, has made it possible to cut federal expenses, and Mr. Truman claims that he has recommended what amounts to a balanced budget. Some critics deny that this is true. They point to the difference of \$4 billion between income and expenses as evidence that the budget has not yet been balanced, even

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WHERE THE GOVERNMENT'S MONEY GOES



WHERE THE GOVERNMENT'S MONEY COMES FROM



* \$1,000,000,000 OF THIS AMOUNT WILL BE SET ASIDE FOR FEDERAL OLD AGE FUND

DRAWINGS FOR THE AMERICAN OBSERVER BY JOHNSON

Highlights from the new budget for the federal government

Government Income and Outgo

(Concluded from page 1)

though this difference is to be met by cash already on hand. They say also that, in the past, estimates of government expenses have usually been too low, while estimates of income have usually been too high. In the end, they believe, there may be a difference of more than \$4 billion between what the government takes in and what it spends.

This brings us to one of the questions about the budget which is being debated. Now that the war is over, is the government collecting too little or too much in taxes? Many argue that it is taking too great a part of what the American people earn.

High Taxes Continue

In his message, President Truman asked that taxes be kept at their present level. He argued that government costs will continue to be high, and that they should be met by the public while employment and wages are at high levels. Mr. Truman also pointed out that high taxes reduce the danger of inflation or runaway prices.

Inflation, of course, results from the public's having more money to spend than there are goods to buy. If the surplus money is drained off in taxes, the danger of inflation is lessened. The money does not stay in the hands of the people to compete for scarce goods. For this reason, many people think that we should start reducing our huge national debt now by increasing taxes above their present level.

Another point about the budget which has aroused debate is whether or not the President is cutting expenses as much as he could have now that the war is over. Many think that government spending can and should be reduced more than the President is planning. We shall discuss this issue fully as each of the big items of government spending is debated in Congress.

Meanwhile, let us see how the President decided the amount which he thinks the government should spend, and how he plans to raise the money. His financial planning is based on what

is known as the fiscal year. This is merely the government's bookkeeping year, which always begins on July 1 and ends the following June 30. The budget plans which President Truman has worked out are for the 1947 fiscal year, beginning next July 1.

Although the budget comes from the President, he himself does not have the time to prepare it. The actual work is done by a special government agency, the Bureau of the Budget. In preparing the budget, the Bureau's first job is to collect estimates from all federal departments and agencies of their financial needs.

Meanwhile the budget makers go to the Department of the Treasury to learn how much the government expects to collect in taxes. They also find out the amount of money it already has on hand.

Report to President

The Budget Bureau goes over all these figures carefully, weighing the expenses against the income, and making revisions where they appear to be necessary. The bureau's final report is submitted to the President.

The President, in his turn, goes over this report, adding to it or subtracting from it, as he thinks necessary. The final budget is sent to Congress for its study and approval. Congress need not accept the budget as the President has outlined it. Indeed, it often makes substantial changes in the figures. It may add to the appropriations of an agency which it thinks is especially worth-while, and it may take away from those of another group of which it does not approve.

How does the President propose that \$36 billion be spent by the federal government during the fiscal year 1947? Although the war is over, the largest single item in the suggested budget is for national defense. A total of \$16 billion has been recommended in connection with the occupation of enemy lands, the demobilization of the armed forces, and the maintenance of our peacetime armed forces.

Another big item is the sum sug-

gested for veterans' pensions and benefits. The amount to be paid to veterans of World War II, as well as to veterans of earlier wars, is estimated at more than \$4 billion.

An additional \$5 billion will be spent to pay the interest on the government debt. This debt is in the form of bonds which have been sold to individuals, banks, and businesses. The government has borrowed such huge sums of money that the interest which it has to pay adds up to a large sum.

The government also plans to spend over \$1.5 billion on public works—dams, airports, highways, river improvements, and so on. Another \$1 billion will go for social security benefits, such as payments to retired workers and their families. It will cost about \$1.5 billion to pay the salaries and other expenses of Congress, of the federal courts, and of the government departments—to meet the operating expenses of the government.

The money to pay all these costs will be obtained largely through taxes. The biggest source of revenue is from taxes on the income earned by individuals and businesses. These taxes will bring more than \$21 billion to the government during the fiscal year 1947. The next largest source of income is from so-called excise taxes, that is, taxes on tobacco, amusements, cosmetics, furs, jewelry, and other luxury items. The government expects to collect more than \$6 billion from these taxes.

Social Security Taxes

A third source of revenue is the employment tax paid by the worker and his employer. It is expected that about \$2 billion will come from this source. While these taxes cannot be used to meet the regular expenses of the government, they will be used to meet the expenses of the social security system—expenses such as unemployment insurance and old-age benefits. Customs and miscellaneous taxes will make up the rest of the government's receipts.

Altogether the government expects to collect \$32 billion. It has been pointed out that this is \$4 billion below the amount the government will have to spend, and that the difference will be made up from funds which the

Treasury now has on hand. In addition the Treasury has another \$4 billion in cash. Mr. Truman has recommended that this amount be used to make a small start toward reducing the national debt.

This does not mean, however, that the government will stop borrowing money—stop selling bonds. There are always individuals or businesses who want to get back the money they have lent to the government and who are therefore cashing in their bonds. The government must continue to sell bonds to replace those which are being cashed.

Growing Responsibilities

Such is the general picture of President Truman's plans for the financial operations of the government during the coming year. As we compare the costs of running our political machinery today with that of the past, we see how the government's responsibilities have grown along with the increase in the nation's population.

The yearly cost of operating the government did not top the billion-dollar mark until the close of the Civil War. After that, government expenses declined and we did not have a billion-dollar budget again until World War I. Between the World Wars, the cost of running the government never fell below \$3 billion. The largest amounts were spent in the depression years from 1933 on, when the costs of relief and public works boosted the budget to \$8 billion in a single year.

While this is a large sum, it is completely overshadowed by the amounts spent during World War II. In 1944, the cost of national defense alone totaled more than \$90 billion. The entire budget was above \$100 billion.

In financial terms the result of this spending, both of the war years and of the depression, is a national debt of \$275 billion, the largest in our history. President Truman recognized the need to retire some of this debt when he proposed using \$4 billion of the Treasury's surplus for that purpose. In the next few years, there will be great debates over how fast we should reduce our national debt, and over whether it should be done by high taxes or reduced government spending.

Conflict Over FEPC

RECENTLY Senator Chavez of New Mexico brought to the floor of the Senate a bill to make the Fair Employment Practice Committee a permanent body. This action reopened a question which has aroused bitter controversy both in Congress and across the nation. Shall the federal government try to prevent employers or unions from discriminating against workers because of race, color, or creed?

Discrimination by employers most often takes the form of refusing to employ workers of certain racial groups. Even after a person has been employed, however, there are ways of discriminating against him. The employer may subject him to inferior working conditions; he may not use the worker's highest skills and keep him in lower-paid jobs; he may not give the employee equal pay for equal work; and he may dismiss members of minority groups when his labor force needs to be cut. Unions discriminate by barring racial minorities from their membership. This deprives a worker of being able to join with others in the effort to improve his laboring conditions.

The Fair Employment Practice Committee, the FEPC, was established by President Roosevelt in 1941. Charges had been made that war production was being slowed down because employers would not hire Ne-

eral times President Truman has said that he wants these measures passed.

Supporters of the FEPC feel that the organization must be continued to prevent unequal treatment of minority workers in case unemployment should threaten. They point out that new opportunities for employment were opened for Negroes and other groups during the war, but that the progress along these lines may be lost when there is no longer a shortage of labor. Besides seeing this as an injustice to the groups involved, these people fear the immediate danger of race riots and disastrous civil strife.

From the longer view, those who favor the FEPC argue as follows: "The right to work is essential to the right to live. Selection of workers on the basis of race or religion destroys that right. It violates the principle of equality of opportunity upon which our nation was founded. Discrimination is a denial of democracy and an invitation to fascism. Continuation of the FEPC is necessary to prove to the world that the United States fought the war for democracy at home as well as abroad, and to prove to peoples of the Far East that we do not intend to discriminate against them."

In answer to charges that racial equality of opportunity cannot be brought about by legislation, but only by education, supporters of the measure say that the two go hand in hand. They feel that part of the FEPC's success during the war was due to the discussions its members had with employers which helped them overcome their prejudices. These discussions, which were often very informal, were educational in nature.

Opposing Views

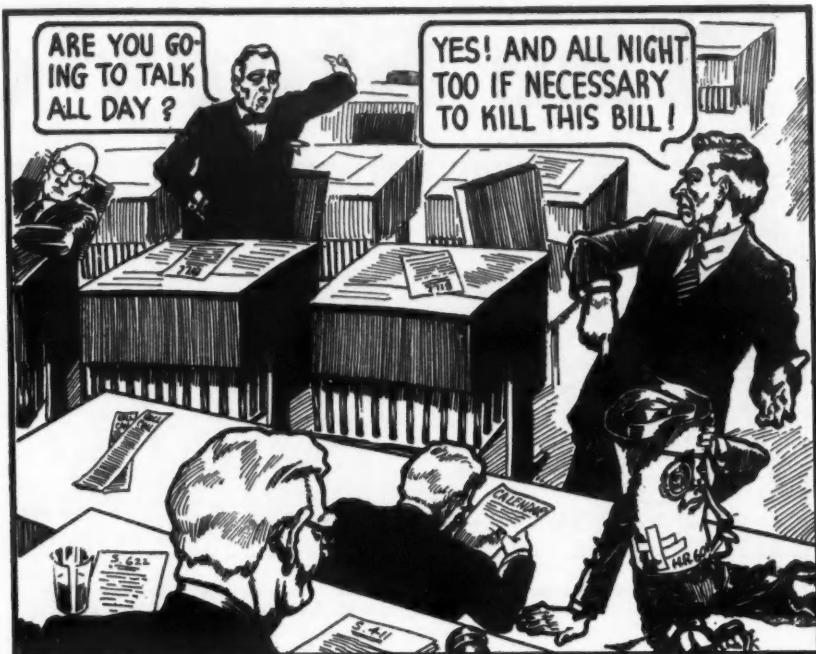
Opponents of the measure feel, on the other hand, that prejudice and discrimination can be overcome only by education. They feel that efforts by the federal government to coerce employers will hinder progress which is now being made along this line and will intensify strife. They feel also that the proposed bills violate the right of employers to choose their own employees, and that this legislation, if passed, will lead to dangerous government interference in private affairs.

Critics also point to the difficulties of enforcing this kind of a law. They say there is no reasonable way to determine when racial considerations are the basis for hiring one person in preference to another, and when other factors enter into the picture.

Finally, it is claimed that the leaders of the movement for a permanent FEPC are not thinking of the welfare of any group or of the nation, but instead are merely trying to win the political support of Negroes and other minorities. In raising this issue, it is argued, these leaders are stirring up a bitter conflict when the nation should be cooperating to bring about full employment and prosperity.

These are among the arguments for and against a permanent FEPC. The bitterness of feeling which the measure has aroused has led one group in Congress to jockey to bring the matter to a vote, while another group strives to prevent it.

As we go to press, several Senators who oppose the measure are engaging in a filibuster to prevent final action by the Senate. (See article in next column.)



When senators engage in a filibuster, they "talk a bill to death"

Filibuster in Action

THE Senate bill which would set up a permanent Fair Employment Practices Commission (see other article on this page) recently brought an old senatorial device back into the public eye. For, when the FEPC bill came to the floor of the Senate, some of the senators who were opposed to it started a "filibuster." They entered upon a debate designed to prevent the bill from being voted upon.

The filibuster is a by-product of the great freedom of debate permitted in the Senate. In the House of Representatives there are strict limitations on the length of time any one member may discuss a single issue. The rule is that no congressman may speak more than once on a particular bill. Furthermore, no member may talk for more than an hour at a time. The only exception is that the congressman who introduces a bill may discuss it for two hours. The system of lining up speakers for and against a bill in advance and barring other congressmen from the debate is another limitation on House discussion.

Senate Holds Back

Since it is so much smaller than the House, the Senate for many years felt such rules to be unnecessary. Without them, however, it was often at the mercy of filibusters. Senators found that if they disliked a particular bill but felt they could not marshal enough votes to defeat it, they could use their freedom of debate to talk it to death. If they could hold the floor and refuse to end discussion, the bill could not come to a vote. Eventually, either the session would end, or the Senate would be forced to drop the issue to make way for other business.

Finally, in 1917, one spectacular filibuster led the Senate to curb its own freedom of debate. A few senators killed President Wilson's bill to allow the arming of American merchant ships against submarine attack. Severely criticized by the President, the Senate adopted its present cloture rule.

This provides that if 16 senators petition for it, the Senate shall vote on whether or not to cut short the debate. If two-thirds favor cloture, or the ending of unlimited discussion, a new set of rules comes into effect. No member may speak for more than an hour,

and the bill must be voted upon before any other business is taken care of.

The Senate cloture rule is a fairly effective answer to the filibuster, or would be if senators wished to take advantage of it. But, in the nearly 30 years since it was passed, it has been used less than a half dozen times. Senators hesitate to give up their freedom of debate, even to secure the passage of bills they favor. They hesitate to make use of the cloture rule for fear that it will be used against them in return. Thus, in spite of the cloture rule, there have been several lengthy filibusters in the Senate in recent years.

A Loophole

Not all filibusters, however, can be stopped by adopting the cloture rule. The one type of debate the cloture rule cannot limit is debate over the Senate Journal. The senators opposing FEPC are taking advantage of that loophole. They have introduced an endless flow of amendments and corrections to the Journal, and as long as they keep on doing this the FEPC bill cannot be taken up.

The one weapon which the filibuster opponents may use is to force the Senate into 24-hour sessions until the FEPC issue is settled. By wearing down the physical endurance of opposition leaders, they might be able to break the filibuster and bring the bill to a vote.

It is easy to see the injustice and waste involved in filibustering. First of all, the filibuster makes it possible for a small minority of the Senate to defeat the will of the majority. In the FEPC case, it is clear that a majority of the Senate do want an immediate vote. Before discussion of the Journal started, a vote was taken on whether to give the FEPC bill priority on the Senate floor. Those in favor won, 49 to 17.

Filibusters are also dangerous because they tie up Senate business. As some senators have pointed out, the FEPC filibuster has kept the Senate from considering several issues which demand its immediate attention.

In spite of these disadvantages, however, the majority of senators apparently do not want further limitations on their freedom of debate and discussion.



Among the senators strongly opposed to the Fair Employment Practice Committee is Theodore Bilbo of Mississippi.

groes and other minorities to relieve the serious shortages of labor. The order setting up the FEPC required that all war contracts made by the government should prohibit unequal treatment of an employee or an applicant for a job because of race, creed, color, or national origin. Provisions were made for the FEPC to investigate charges made by minority groups and to seek satisfactory adjustment.

During the war the committee received several thousand complaints, most of which it settled satisfactorily. In addition it is credited with opening jobs for many thousands of men. Those who support the committee feel that it did an excellent job, although it operated with a small staff and on limited funds.

Last July when it was necessary for Congress to appropriate funds for the FEPC, bills were introduced in both houses to make the committee permanent. The proposals did not pass, and instead Congress cut to a minimum the funds allotted to the FEPC. Since that time, legislators who favor the agency have been trying to bring the bills to a vote. Sev-

The Story of the Week



The new dime coined in honor of Franklin D. Roosevelt is now in circulation. This is the first time in 30 years that the design of the dime has been changed.

Dispute over White House

President Truman's plans for an addition to the White House are meeting objections from those who feel that the Chief Executive's home should not be made into an office building. Actually, however, the White House has been gaining a business atmosphere for many years as the executive duties have expanded in line with the growing functions of the federal government.

Under President Benjamin Harrison, in the early 1890's, the White House was no busier than the mayor's office in a small town. In those days there were no state dinners or evening conferences. President Harrison kept the mansion open for business between nine o'clock in the morning and five in the afternoon. The whole executive office staff consisted of 10 people, and four of these were doorkeepers and messengers.

Since then, and especially during the past decade, the situation has completely changed. The White House has become the nerve center of the government, and there is no doubt that the need for more office space is urgent.

Critics of President Truman's addition, however, say that new offices could be put in the State Department building which is just across the street. Or else, they say, the government could build a special office building for the Chief Executive. Although the present plans call only for the addition of a low wing in the back of the building, opponents of the plan say that if every president decides to change the features of the White House, it will lose the architectural grace for which it is famous.

Wheat Shortage

Last year and the year before, American farmers produced record-breaking wheat crops. They may do the same this year if the weather is good. Yet, for the world as a whole, a serious shortage of wheat has intensified the threat of hunger.

Droughts in Europe's chief wheat-producing areas are partly responsible. Areas like the Danube Basin and France, which normally have more wheat than they can use, are now asking for imports. Elsewhere, reconstruction difficulties have kept crops far below normal.

Altogether, the supply of wheat available for the relief of Europe and Asia is 187,000,000 bushels short of what is needed. The importing countries and those dependent on supplies

from the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration have asked for 637,500,000 bushels of wheat between now and June. But the leading wheat-producing countries—the United States, Canada, Australia, and Argentina—can give no more than 450,000,000 bushels.

UNO and Democracy

Most people think of the Security Council of the United Nations Organization as less democratic than the Assembly. The Council concentrates power in the hands of a few big nations, giving the smaller countries comparatively little to say in its work. The Assembly, on the other hand, represents all members of UNO equally. Regardless of size, each country has one vote and there is little danger that the big powers will overshadow the smaller ones.

But, is this actually more democratic? In terms of the people who make up the nations in UNO, it is not. As the Assembly is set up now, vast China and tiny Luxembourg have the same voting power. This means that one citizen of Luxembourg commands as much influence in the Assembly as 1,500 Chinese. It also means that the 82,000,000 people of the 27 smaller nations in UNO—each of which has a population smaller than that of New York City—can outvote the nearly 2,000,000,000 citizens of the other 24.

This situation represents the same situation we in the United States have

in our Senate. Here, too, equality among states means inequality among people, for the 110,000 people of Nevada have exactly the same representation as New York's 13,500,000. On the other hand, the membership of the House of Representatives is based on population.

What Do You Think?

Recent wage raises granted at a Miami race track have brought the incomes of grooms to \$200 a month, plus sleeping quarters. This amount, without sleeping quarters, is the highest a schoolteacher can earn in Dade County, Florida, in which Miami is situated. And a schoolteacher must work ten years in Dade County to get that much.

These facts have caused much comment. It has been pointed out that the average schoolteacher must earn a college degree before he can even start at \$150 a month, while race-track grooms must know only how to curry a horse and apply liniment and bandages. The *Christian Science Monitor* asks the following questions in an editorial:

"Is this typical of American civilization? Do we as a people place a higher value on the services of a carrier of race horses than on those of the educators of our children? Isn't the situation complained of in Miami practically duplicated almost everywhere in the United States? Isn't it high time that Americans began changing their attitude toward the people who, next to our own parents, exert perhaps the greatest influence on our lives?"

Washington's Mr. Smith

Preparing the federal budget (see page 1) is only one of a multitude of tasks which are handled for the President by Harold D. Smith, director of the Budget Bureau and one of the most respected public servants in the nation. Mr. Smith's duties include:

(1) Inspecting all bills which are passed by Congress before the President signs or vetoes them; (2) approving all changes in the federal departments; (3) recommending how the government can be run with more

economy and speed. As an efficiency expert, he will probably play a big part in President Truman's reorganization of the federal agencies.

Apart from his regular job, Mr. Smith has often been called to do special tasks in an unofficial capacity. Many quarrels and log jams have been straightened out by his keen judgment and able diplomacy. His recommendations are behind much of the legislation submitted to Congress from the White House.

Secretary of Commerce Henry A. Wallace once called Harold Smith "the most important man in the Administration." One member of Congress is reported to have said: "We just grant the authority for this government. Mr. Smith makes the laws."



Harold D. Smith, Director of the Budget

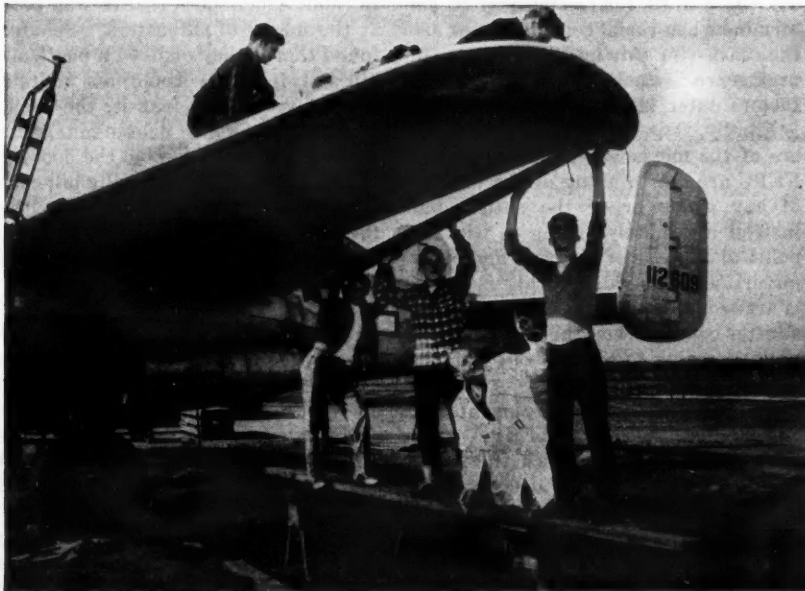
President Roosevelt persuaded Mr. Smith to handle the budget seven years ago, when he decided that the man who held the federal purse strings should be an expert government administrator without political ties. Mr. Smith, who once called himself "an independent Republican with Socialist leanings who frequently votes Democratic," regards himself as a scientist, because he believes that scientific management is the only thing which can keep democracy in good working order.

War Toll in Greece

Greece is now in violent turmoil as extremists continue their attempts to tear the suffering country apart before its first postwar elections, which are scheduled for March 31. Latest reports tell of hostages being killed in struggles between government forces and secret organizations supporting the exiled king. In other fights the government troops have engaged Greek resistance groups, who have also resorted to violence to put forward their aims.

However, the troubles of Greece are not merely political. Of all the countries which were devastated by the war, Greece was without doubt one of the hardest hit. Relief supplies have only begun to relieve the suffering. More than 900,000 people out of a total population of 11,000,000 died during the war from sickness or starvation or in actual fighting. More than 1,200 villages out of 10,000 were completely destroyed. Greek money is almost worthless as a result of inflation. Malaria and other diseases afflict a large part of the population.

Many observers believe the political troubles of Greece—the murders and



Fremont High School in Sunnyvale, California, is the owner of a B-25 bomber, purchased from the Army for \$200. Although it will not be flown, the bomber will serve as an excellent "classroom" and laboratory for the school's aeronautics students, some of whom are shown inspecting the craft.

constant fighting which have plagued her since liberation—are the direct results of this economic and physical sickness. They ask what America would do if it were in the condition of Greece, with one-tenth of its towns and one-tenth of its people destroyed by the war. They point to our present struggles over reconversion, and they ask us what we would do if we had really suffered physical devastation in the war.

The Dardanelles

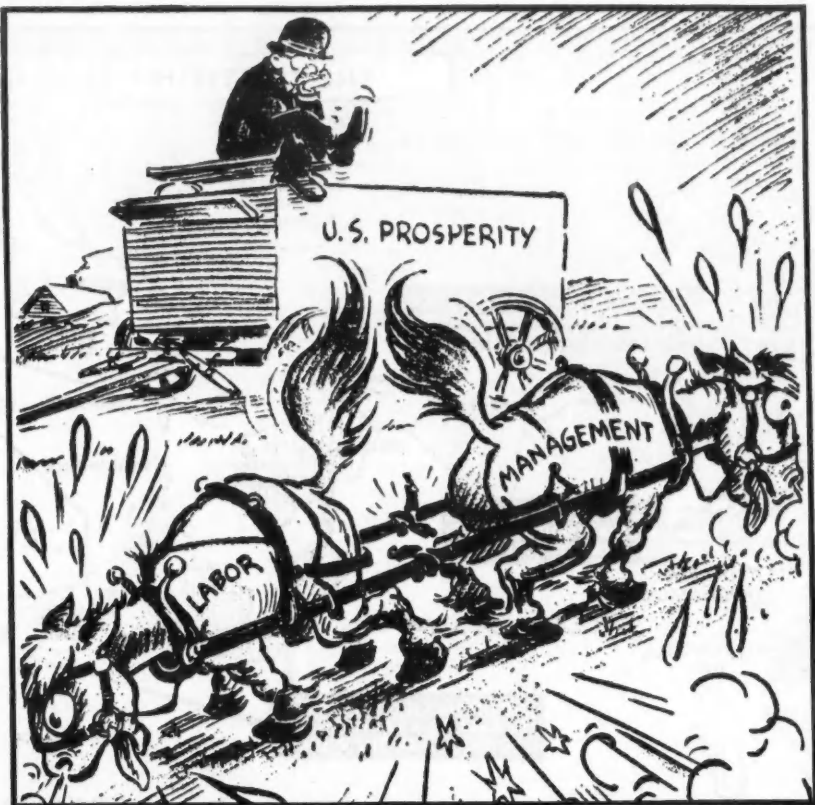
Several students have written to ask if we did not make a mistake in the statement under the picture on page 8 of THE AMERICAN OBSERVER for January 21. That statement was: "Istanbul, one of Turkey's most modern cities, is located on the Straits of the Dardanelles."

Technically, we did make an error. As a glance at the map will show, the 172-mile-long waterway which connects the Black Sea to the Aegean and Mediterranean Seas is made up of three bodies of water—on the west is the Dardanelles passage, 35 to 40 miles long; to the east is the narrow 17-mile Strait of the Bosphorus; and in between is the relatively wide Sea of Marmara. Istanbul is located on the Bosphorus rather than the Dardanelles.

However, it has become common practice to group all three of these channels under one name and call them collectively the "Straits of the Dardanelles." When Russia says she wants greater control over the Dardanelles, or when newspapers tell about the dispute over the Dardanelles, they are referring to the entire waterway. It was this meaning we had in mind when we said that Istanbul is located on the Straits of the Dardanelles.

French President

How long will the new president of France, Felix Gouin, stay in office? Trying to predict an answer to that question would be risky. General de Gaulle, who yielded the presidency to Gouin, came up against one political crisis after another. His successor is almost certain to do the same, for the French people and leaders are



"Finest pullin' team in the world!"

sharply divided over public problems.

The three major parties—Socialist, Communist, and Popular Republican Movement—disagree on a number of issues. They are split on the question of whether the new constitution, which is now being drawn up for France, should give more power to the legislature or to the president. They do not agree on how far the government should go in controlling and operating industrial and agricultural enterprises. In addition, they differ over how large an Army and Navy France should have.

The Communists and Socialists want to go far in the direction of government control over industry. They also want to keep down the size of the armed forces, arguing that the money could be better spent for other purposes, and that if the UNO doesn't succeed, France and all other nations will be destroyed by war anyway.

The Popular Republicans do not want to carry government control of industry to the extreme lengths that the other two parties do. Moreover, they say that France should build up her military strength and be prepared for whatever emergency may develop.

General de Gaulle, in general, favors this latter point of view. Thus, he ran into constant opposition from the Communists and Socialists. Felix Gouin is a Socialist who, for the time being, has the cooperation of all three parties. It is doubtful, however, whether he can long keep the support of the Popular Republicans, and he will also have a hard time pleasing the Communists.

John L. Lewis Returns

The recent return of half a million United Mine Workers to the American Federation of Labor was an important event in the labor world. This large union, headed by the colorful labor leader, John L. Lewis, was formerly associated with the other unions which together make up the AFL.

Then, 10 years ago, a break developed in the labor ranks. A number of the AFL unions broke away from the Federation, and joined with other workers who, up to that time, had not been organized into unions. In 1936 these unions were formed into a new national association now known as the Congress of Industrial Organizations, or the CIO. John L. Lewis led the movement away from the AFL, and was the president of the newly formed CIO. Several years later, he again became dissatisfied and took his miners' union out of the CIO.

Now the United Mine Workers are back with the AFL. Federation leaders feel that this will greatly strengthen the older organization. Many members of the CIO argue, on the other hand, that John L. Lewis is a troublemaker, that he tries to rule any organization to which he belongs, and that the American Federation of Labor would be better off without him and his union.

Where Do You Stand?

(Concluded from page 1)

of work later. Employers know this, so when a young man or woman applies for a job, they go back to the school record. They ask whether the applicant was dependable, whether he was always on the job, whether he was punctual, whether he did his work well. If the record is not good, the applicant is likely not to get the job—especially if it is a really good position.

You may not understand how important all this is. You know that, during the war period, workers have been so scarce that almost anyone could get and hold a job. But that is an unusual situation. During peaceful years, jobs are frequently scarce. Ordinarily the person who shows qualities of leadership has the best chance to obtain positions and to move upward. Those whose records have been satisfactory but not outstanding are next in line, while those who have acquired the habit of doing poor work have little chance of going forward.

The satisfaction which comes with successful work is also to be considered. The good student, the competent citizen, the school and community leader—these are the ones who experience the greatest enjoyment in their daily living.

SMILES

Visitor (gushing): "Oh, little Junior does have his mother's eyes!"

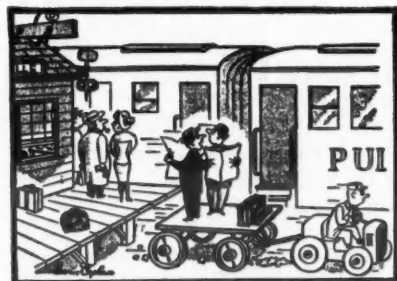
Mother (proudly): "And his father's mouth!"

Junior (disgustedly): "And his brother's trousers."

★ ★ ★

Mrs. Tiltnose (interviewing cook): "Suppose I wanted you to cook an elaborate meal for about 15 people. Would you be lost?"

Cook: "You bet! That's how the last folks lost me."



"Did you ever notice sometimes how the station seems to be moving and the train standing still?"

Horsemanship is the art of hitting the saddle without letting anyone know how much it hurts.

★ ★ ★

"Isn't nature wonderful?"

"Why?"

"A million years ago she didn't know we were going to wear glasses, yet look at the way she placed our ears."

★ ★ ★

John: "I fell the other day and hit my head against the piano."

James: "Did you hurt yourself?"

John: "No, I hit the soft pedal."

★ ★ ★

Doctor (to patient who had just rushed in): "Don't you know that my office hours are from three to six?"

Patient: "Yes, but the dog that bit me didn't."

★ ★ ★

When Doyle joined the police force, the sergeant told him:

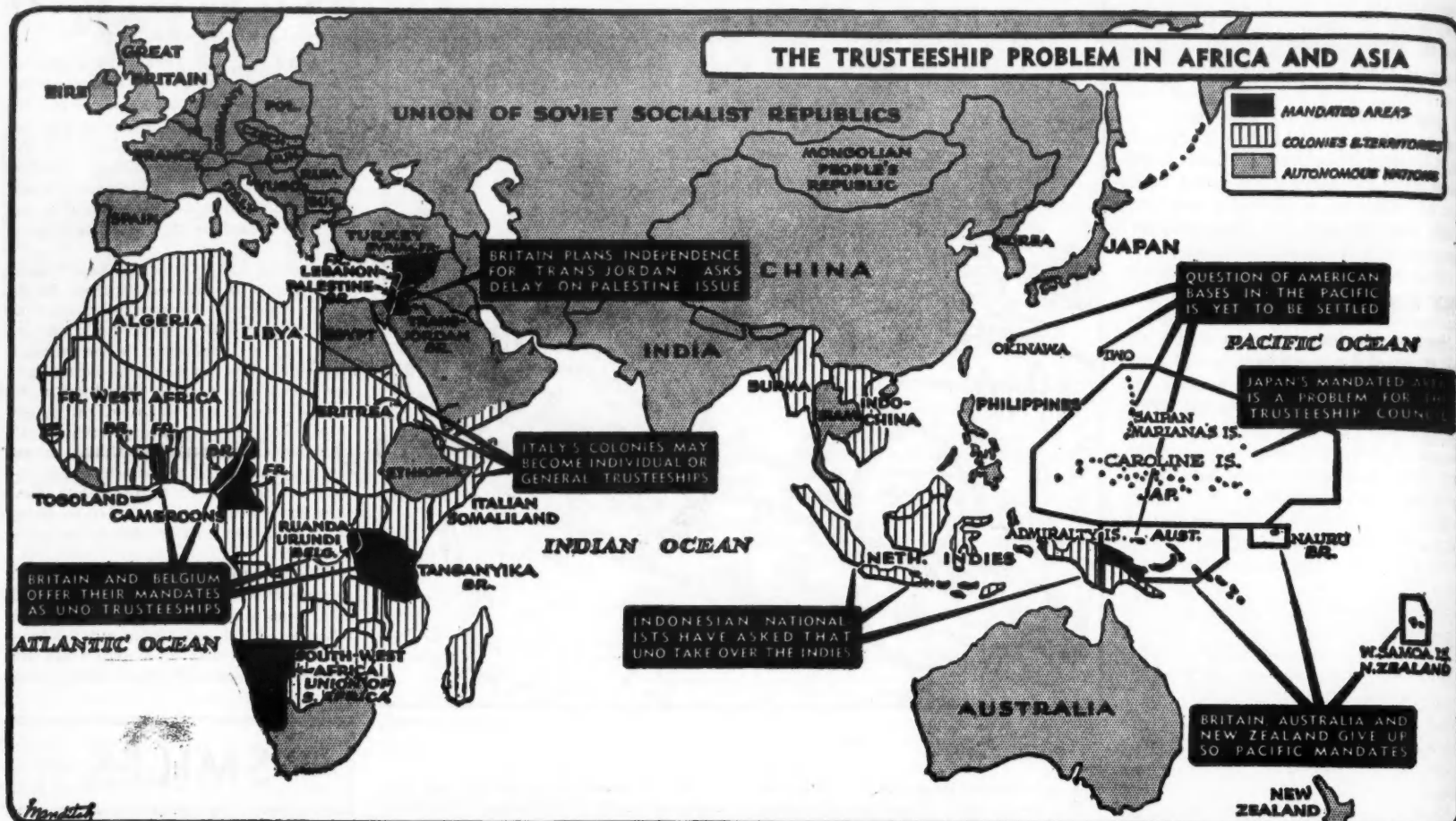
"You're on the night beat. Patrol from here to the red light and back."

For two days they saw no more of Doyle. Then he walked into the station exhausted. The sergeant asked him, "Where in the world have you been? I told you that your beat was from here to that red light."

"Yeah," said Doyle sadly, "but that red light was on the back of a truck!"



Now that the war is over, it is possible for increased numbers of students from foreign lands to attend schools in the United States. These students, enrolled at Columbia University, came from (left to right) Peru, the Philippines, South Africa, and China.



This map shows the dependent areas which are involved in the discussion of the UNO's trusteeship system

UNO Trusteeship Plan

(Concluded from page 1)

of one or more mandates was supposed to make a yearly report to the League.

In practice, however, the large nations treated their mandates just as though they owned them—that is, like colonies. They paid little attention to the League, which had no real power to enforce its wishes.

Nor did the League have authority to take mandates away from a nation if the rules were violated. No nation was supposed to fortify a mandate, but Japan did. She built powerful fortifications on her Pacific mandates (islands taken from Germany after World War I). The League was unable to do anything about this, and it could not take back the mandates when Japan left the League in 1935.

New Program

The mandate system is still in existence. However, since the League of Nations is being replaced by the UNO, a new program, known as the "trusteeship" plan, has been worked out to cover the whole problem of dependent peoples.

Actually, the new plan is not so very different from the old mandate system, but it is hoped that it will work better. The dependent areas which are placed under the control of the UNO will be called "trusteeships" instead of mandates, but they will be governed in much the same way as they were under the League. In most cases, individual nations will have the main responsibility of governing the areas. These nations will be known as "trustees."

The UNO, however, intends to keep a much closer check on how the trustee countries rule their areas than the League did in the case of nations which controlled mandates. Not only will the trustees have to make yearly reports to the UNO, but officials of this world organization will also make regular inspection trips to the dependent areas in order to see just

what is going on in these territories.

Two UNO agencies will be in charge of this program. One of these is the Security Council. It will control all "strategic areas"—that is, dependent areas used for military or UNO police purposes. For example, if the United States decides to put under trusteeship the Pacific islands we have won from Japan, then the Security Council will supervise our activities on all those which are used as defense bases.

Most of the dependent areas, however, will not be used for military and naval bases. These "nonstrategic" areas will come under a second agency, the Trusteeship Council. This Council will have the task of supervising the "trustee" nations—of sending inspectors into the dependent territories under their rule.

The Trusteeship Council will soon be set up by the General Assembly and will be under its general control. The size of the Council may vary from time to time. It will include all the nations that hold trusteeships, plus an equal number which do not. The Big Five nations—the United States, Great Britain, Russia, France, and China—must always be members. Every member will have one vote, and all decisions will be made by a simple majority.

Depends on Members

How well the Trusteeship Council works will depend upon the cooperation it gets from the various nations. It cannot force action of any kind. The UNO Charter does not require any nation to put the dependent regions which it now controls under the trusteeship system. The plan is entirely voluntary, but nations are being strongly persuaded to go along with it.

There are three kinds of dependent territories which might be included in this program. First of all, it is hoped that each nation which holds

mandates from the League of Nations will permit them to become UNO trusteeships.

Second, the effort is being made to include in this plan the colonies and mandates which are to be taken away from Japan and Italy.

The third group of territories which might possibly be brought into the trusteeship system includes colonies other than those belonging to enemy nations. No Allied country wants to turn over any of its colonies to the UNO, however, and none is expected to take such action unless it feels compelled to do so by the weight of world opinion.

When we examine the attitude of the major nations on the question of trusteeships, we find that they are willing to cooperate to a large extent in this program. At the same time, though, each of them holds back when it feels that its vital interests are at stake.

Russia has no colonies, so she is inclined to feel that England should turn most of her colonial possessions over to the trusteeship system. In that way, the Russians would have more to say about these territories than is the case now.

Russia would also like to be appointed the "trustee" for one or more of Italy's former colonies. This would strengthen her position on the Mediterranean Sea.

Finally, the Russians are taking over Japan's Kurile Islands in the Pacific. It is expected that they will try to keep these islands under exclusive Soviet control rather than place them under the trusteeship system.

England, on the other hand, has so many colonies and mandates that she is willing to make some concessions. She feels that if she places her mandates under UNO control, world opinion may not be so opposed to her vast colonial empire. Since the mandates are much less important than the colonies, she is ready to sacrifice them in order to "buy" good will and to help make the UNO successful. But England is unwilling to turn over any

of her extensive colonies to UNO supervision.

The United States also has a mixed policy toward this question. Many Americans favor a wide use of the trusteeship plan in other parts of the world, but insist that we keep a number of Pacific islands under our exclusive control.

These islands, it is argued, were won at a heavy cost in American lives. They must be fortified so that no future enemy can attack us by way of the Pacific. But if we allow the UNO Security Council to supervise those which we intend to use as defense bases, certain members of the Security Council might try to prevent us from fortifying the islands or using them for our own best interests.

The Other View

Other Americans argue, however, we cannot expect our Allies to cooperate with the trusteeship system unless we cooperate ourselves. Besides, they contend that even though the Pacific islands become trusteeships we can easily safeguard our interests there.

They point out, for example, that if we want to keep Okinawa as an air base, we will have full right to specify ahead of time the exact conditions under which we will permit it to be a trusteeship. Then we can use our veto power on the Security Council to prevent any other nation from interfering with the way we use the base.

These are some of the questions which must be settled if the trusteeship system is to meet with success. If each nation adopts the view that the trusteeship idea is good for other countries but not for itself, then obviously the plan cannot work. If each one places too many limitations on the UNO before it agrees to permit that agency to supervise its dependent areas, the trusteeship system will be no better than the old mandate system. On the other hand, if there is a willingness among the various nations to compromise and to meet one another half way, the system can succeed.

Should Hawaii Become 49th State?

Hawaii, crossroads for Pacific commerce and strategic outpost of American military power, is asking to be admitted as the 49th state in the American Union. President Truman has urged Congress to grant Hawaii's wish, and a bill embodying the proposal is now in the House.

The geography, economy, and history of the territory of Hawaii must be considered in order to understand more clearly the arguments for and against statehood for this stepping stone to the Far East.

Of the eight major Hawaiian Islands, Oahu is of greatest importance. On Oahu is Honolulu, the capital, as well as the chief commercial city and port, with a population of 261,033. Six miles from the capital is the great naval base of Pearl Harbor, large enough for the entire U. S. fleet. Hawaii, however, is the largest island, containing two-thirds of the island's 6,454 square miles of land area.

Garden Paradise

Taken together, the major islands are about the size of New Jersey, and stretch for 400 miles in the mid-Pacific, 2,100 miles from the California coast. They are formed by 15 or more volcanoes rising from the Pacific. The beauty of their majestic peaks, taken with the sandy beaches, and springlike climate, make the islands a garden and tourists' paradise.

Well-developed steamship and airlines connect Hawaii with the United States and also with the Far East. Motor roads, railroads, and inter-island steamship lines exist within the territory.

Hawaii is the melting pot of many diverse races. Of the approximately 500,000 permanent residents, one-third are of Japanese ancestry. The rest are largely of Chinese, Filipino, Hawaiian, Portuguese, and American descent. The spirit, however, is American, the races being welded together by the English language, American schools, and Christianity. There is little race prejudice, a tradition of tolerance having long been established by the Hawaiians.

Because of the lack of coal and other important minerals, Hawaii is essentially an agricultural nation. During the war new records were made in the production of her two chief crops, sugar and pineapples. Grown sci-

tifically on a large scale, sugar cane thrives in the well-watered plains and valleys, and pineapple crops flourish on the dry upland soil. Molasses, hides, potatoes, bananas, coffee, nuts, fiber insulating boards, and papaya juice are also produced for the export trade.

Hawaiian factories refine some sugar, polish rice, clean coffee, and can 80 per cent of the world's processed pineapple. Hawaii imports meat and canned goods.

The majority of Hawaiian industries are allegedly controlled by the so-called "Big Five," a group of five firms with important investments in sugar and pineapple plantations, as well as in shipping and other industries. Some of the "Big Five" executives are descended from early missionaries and their firms are reported to have extensive control over the economic life of the islands. Business interests from the mainland, however, have been extending their operations in Hawaii during recent years.

Labor organizations are becoming strong, however. The CIO has been active in organizing workers on the waterfront and on the outer-island plantations, and the American Federation of Labor has organized workers in the crafts and trades.

The war has caused Hawaiian business to grow from an annual \$20,000,000 to \$100,000,000 in 1944. The territorial treasury has a large surplus, and citizens of the islands have bought more war bonds per person than have the people of any state on the mainland.

First brought to the world's attention by the exploration of British Captain Cook in 1778, the Hawaiians were united under a native ruler in 1791. They became Christians after the arrival of missionaries in 1820.

When the United States refused to accept a Hawaiian offer of annexation in 1893, the islands became a republic until the American government reversed its original decision in 1898. In 1900 the Hawaiians accepted territorial status under the American flag, with the understanding that this was a first step toward statehood.

Under the territorial arrangement the President of the United States, with the Senate's approval, appoints residents of Hawaii to be governor



One of Hawaii's famed pineapple plantations

and secretary of the territory. The residents elect members to their own House of Representatives and Senate, and choose their non-voting delegate to the national House of Representatives in Washington. Action of the territorial legislature is subject to the approval of the U. S. Congress.

From 1900 to 1933 the people of Hawaii requested statehood seven times, but the movement did not have the powerful backing of the big Hawaiian businessmen. Since that time, however, the business interests in the islands have become leaders in the movement for statehood. They feel that Hawaii must have voting representatives in Congress to protect the business interests of the islands—to see, for example, that Hawaiian cane sugar production has an equal chance for markets with sugar grown on the mainland.

Two to One in Favor

The present request for statehood is the fourth that Hawaii has made since 1933. In 1940 the people of Hawaii voted two to one in favor of becoming a state, but world events were moving rapidly. It was felt that relations with Japan would be further strained if Hawaii was admitted as a state.

Then, too, there was the problem of the large Japanese minority in the islands. Many felt they were more loyal to Japan than to America. It was feared that they would vote as a political bloc and get control of a state government. The splendid war record of the Japanese-Americans of Hawaii, both at home and on the fighting front in Europe, has done much to dispel this fear. It is also pointed out that the Japanese-Americans belong to both political parties, and have not voted as a racial bloc under the territorial government.

Some have viewed statehood for Hawaii with suspicion since the industrialists have switched to its support. On the other hand, government spokesmen such as Secretary of the Interior Harold Ickes, feel that Hawaii as a state might be able to do more to curb the power of the big business interests than the territory has done.

Those who favor Hawaii's becoming the 49th state point out that it is undemocratic for Americans in the Hawaiian Islands to be forced to pay

taxes when they do not have the right to vote in Congress. They add that Congress often does not understand conditions in the islands, and sometimes modifies laws which the territorial legislature has passed. Furthermore, Congress does not always grant all the benefits to Hawaii that it does to the mainland.

These sponsors for Hawaiian statehood believe that the territory is well qualified to take its place as a state for these reasons:

(1) The people have had much experience at democratic government under the territorial system.

(2) The territory is larger than any one of three states—Connecticut, Delaware, or Rhode Island.

(3) Hawaii has more people than any one of four states—Nevada, Wyoming, Delaware, or Vermont.

(4) The territory is self-supporting. In the last 40 years it has paid \$150,000,000 more in taxes than it has received in services. It pays more taxes than any one of 14 states.

(5) Hawaii is only 10 to 12 hours by air from the west coast. It took far longer to get to Texas and California when they became states.

(6) Hawaii has a better school system than do some states. Compulsory education is enforced, and there is a good university.

(7) Hawaii's splendid war record deserves recognition and reward—statehood.

If Hawaii becomes a state, the leaders for statehood conclude, democracy and American prestige will be heightened throughout the Pacific world.

Modern Zoos

Wild animals will find the modern zoo a comfortable place in which to live. As we use knowledge of their natural haunts, the zoo becomes more like their native homes.

Gorillas, chimpanzees, and orangutans do not like to swim, so a water-filled trench around an open area will make a cage for them. But tigers do not mind swimming. The best natural cage for them is an area enclosed by a dry trench too wide for them to jump and too steep for them to climb.

These barriers make a zoo look less like a prison. Such improvements are planned for the Bronx Zoo, one of the largest in the country.



In the downtown section of Honolulu

What Makes Henry Kaiser Click?

By steering clear of strikes at a time when most other large-scale employers are beset with labor troubles, Henry J. Kaiser has added new luster to his reputation as one of the miracle men of American industry. Kaiser's secret is simple—he meets labor more than half way on wages and, in addition, takes concrete steps to give the worker a personal interest in speeding production.

He was one of the first employers to accept President Truman's plan for giving steel workers an 18½ cent hourly pay increase. In his newborn automobile business—the Kaiser-Frazer Corporation—he has forestalled trouble by promising his workers an average wage well above the peak in the industry.

Furthermore, he has worked out an agreement with the union whereby his company promises workers an annual bonus based on the number of cars produced. The plan is for the company to set up a pool and pay five dollars into it for every car to roll off the assembly line. Then this money will be divided up among the workers at the end of each year. Naturally, therefore, workers will want to turn out as many cars as possible and will hesitate to strike.

Labor policies such as this have long contributed to Kaiser's success as one of the country's top industrialists. Whenever he starts a new enterprise—and few men have done more different kinds of manufacturing—he goes to union headquarters and signs a con-



CIO President Philip Murray (left) and Henry Kaiser after the signing of a union contract for Kaiser's steel mill in California

tract first, without waiting for organizers to struggle with him over terms. He believes that most labor troubles can be avoided and has always based his own policies on the idea that "if you pay good wages you get good men."

Ability to get along with labor is, however, only one of the qualities which have brought Henry J. Kaiser to the top in roadbuilding, dam construction, steel manufacture, shipbuilding, and half a dozen other kinds of construction. Equally important are his zeal for efficiency, his willingness to try new methods, and his sharp eye for industrial opportunities.

These qualities showed themselves early in Kaiser's career. His knack

for seeing opportunities came to the fore when he was on his first real job more than 30 years ago. A salesman for a Spokane street paving company, he noted that his firm had more business in Canada than it could handle. He invested in some second-hand concrete mixers and went into the business on his own.

Soon his quickness in seeing chances for technical improvements was paying dividends. Putting rubber tires and roller bearings on his wheelbarrows, for example, enabled him to get much more work out of his men and outstrip his competitors.

Slowly, Kaiser expanded, and by the early 1930's, he was chairman of the

executive committee of the company that built Boulder Dam. In 1933, he led the company which constructed the piers for the San Francisco Bay bridge. Bonneville Dam and Grand Coulee were also built by companies he directed.

War threats and the defense effort turned Kaiser's interest toward shipbuilding in the early part of 1941. Before long, the Kaiser shipyards had contracts covering a third of the nation's wartime shipbuilding program. Here again, resourcefulness and efficiency paid off. Although Kaiser had previously known nothing about shipbuilding, he quickly found ways to revolutionize the process.

Now, Kaiser hopes to translate his many skills into success in still another field—automobile production. With the great bulk of American car manufacture dominated by a few powerful firms such as Ford, Chrysler and General Motors, few men would have thought of trying to break into the industry on their own, but Kaiser was one of those few.

Teaming up with Joseph Frazer, chairman of the Graham-Paige Company, he launched the Kaiser-Frazer Corporation to produce two new cars—the \$1,200 to \$1,500 Frazer and the less expensive Kaiser. The new company took over the giant Willow Run plant where bombers were built during the war, got together an expert production staff and prepared for action. The new cars will not be on sale until spring, but models were on exhibit in New York City last week.

Suggested Study Guide for Students

Government Costs

1. What is meant by the "fiscal" year?
2. Briefly describe how the federal budget is prepared.
3. What does President Truman estimate that it will cost to run the government during the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1946, and ending June 30, 1947?
4. What will be some of the big items of expense during that 12-month period?
5. What are some of the more important kinds of taxes upon which the government depends for income?
6. President Truman says that the budget can be balanced next year even though the government will not collect as much in taxes as it will spend. How can this be done?
7. What is the amount of the national debt today?
8. Explain the conflict of opinion over the present tax rates.

Discussion

The government, at the beginning of this year, lowered the total tax burden on American citizens and businesses by the approximate sum of five billion dollars. Critics of this policy say that taxes should not be reduced at a time when we have a national debt of 275 billion dollars and when people have more money to spend than ever before. Instead, it is argued, taxes

should be increased. Supporters of the tax reduction, on the other hand, feel that business and industry, as well as the entire nation, will be better off because taxes have been reduced. How do you feel about this matter?

References

"Choice of Cutting Debt or Taxes," *United States News*, January 25, 1946. Clearly shows the choice that Americans must make between reducing tax burden or national debt burden.

"A Balanced Budget Near?" *United States News*, January 4, 1946.

"Your Share of the National Blessing," by C. F. Hughes, *Nation's Business*, November, 1945. A history of national borrowing and a general view of the present situation.

"Tax Policy: Back to 1929," by William Withers, *New Republic*, December 19, 1945. A criticism of reducing taxes in view of the huge national debt.

"Our 300-Billion-Dollar Headache," by Harold D. Smith, *American Magazine*, June, 1945. Director of the U. S. Budget Bureau says the public debt is nothing to be happy about, but it is nothing to scare us to death.

Trusteeships

1. How does a mandate differ from a colony?
2. How will the trusteeship system being launched by the UNO differ from the League of Nations mandate system?
3. Name several regions of the world in which a number of mandates are to be found.
4. What two UNO agencies will be in charge of the trusteeship program?

5. What is meant by "strategic" dependent areas, and which UNO agency will deal with them?

6. What is meant by "non-strategic" dependent areas, and which UNO agency will have authority over them?

7. State the British attitude toward the trusteeship plan.

8. How has the United States suggested that the trusteeship system be expanded?

9. On what grounds do other nations criticize our stand on this question?

Discussion

1. On the basis of your present information, would you favor or oppose placing all dependent areas of the world, including colonies, and Pacific islands, under the UNO trusteeship system?

2. Do you or do you not think that the United States is adopting a consistent policy with respect to trusteeships? Explain your answer.

3. If the United States would offer to place all the former Japanese islands in the Pacific under the trusteeship plan on condition that other countries do the same with similar dependent areas which they control, do you think most nations would go along with us? Do you think many of them will cooperate with the plan if we don't put the Pacific islands under UNO supervision?

References

"Colonies and World Peace," *American Mercury*, January, 1946. An informative discussion of this problem.

"Once a Trustee," *Newsweek*, January 28, 1946. Recent steps which nations have taken to give life to the trusteeship system, with special emphasis on the U. S. position.

"The Future of Italy's Colonies," by Vernon McKay, *Foreign Policy Reports*, January 1, 1946. Cases for and against UNO administration of Italian colonies.

"Future of the Japanese Mandate Islands," by William Johnstone, *Foreign Policy Reports*, September 15, 1945. Discussion of past and future control of these islands.

Miscellaneous

1. What is the purpose of the FEPC bill, which caused a filibuster when introduced in the Senate?
2. What is meant by the cloture rule in the Senate?
3. Give several reasons why the people of Hawaii feel that their territory should become the 49th state in the Union.
4. How many people died in Greece during the war?
5. What are the indications that Argentina may be preparing for war?
6. Is there prospect of a world shortage or surplus of wheat this year?
7. What relationship is there between the Dardanelles Strait, the Sea of Marmara, and the Bosphorus Strait?

Pronunciations

Gouin—goo'-an
Peron—peh-ron' or pay-ron'
Kurile—koo' ril
Galapagos—gah-lah' pah-goes
Oahu—oh-ah'hoo